

On a chain of fragmentation equations for duplication-mutation dynamics in DNA sequences

M.V. Koroteev¹

¹School of Biochemistry and Cell Biology, University College Cork, Ireland*

Recent studies have revealed that for the majority of species the length distributions of duplicated sequences in natural DNA follow a power-law tail. We study duplication-mutation models for processes in natural DNA sequences and the length distributions of exact matches computed from both synthetic and natural sequences. Here we present a hierarchy of equations for various number of exact matches for these models. The reduction of these equations to one equation for pairs of exact repeats is found. Quantitative correspondence of solutions of the equation to simulations is demonstrated.

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INTRODUCTION

In recent years a series of duplication-mutation models related to processes occurring in natural DNA sequences has been reported [1–3]. The motivation for introducing these models were earlier empirical observations on *length distributions* [4] of identical repeats in natural DNA sequences[8, 9]. In part it was observed that when computing the length distributions within single chromosomes or whole genome sequences these distributions tended to exhibit power-law tails with the exponent close to -3 [10]. These observations naturally drew attention to potential mechanisms accounting for them.

The first step for explanation of these distributions was done in [1] where empirical computational models of chromosome evolution based on a mechanism of duplications were suggested. The duplications in these models were thought of as random events of copying and pasting a part of the chromosome. If we copy a part and substitute it to another place of the chromosome, then each such event typically results in the appearance of a pair of identical sequences which then undergo further destruction by new duplication events and eventually disappear but as the model generated new pairs at each time unit some balance in the number of duplicates might be expected. It was demonstrated that this evolutionary model with random duplications generates length distributions of *exact matches* or *maxmers*[11] with power-law tails; it was also demonstrated that the slope of these tails with the exponent -3 can be obtained in the model by varying a parameter responsible for the length of the sequences which copy-pasted at each time step: this random mechanism producing new pairs of exact matches is further referred to as *source of duplications*; it is characterized by several parameters, e.g., by the length of the region for copying-pasting which is chosen in accordance with some probability distribution. Thus, this model in-

dicated a neutral mechanism which generated algebraic tails in the length distributions of exact matches and provided first qualitative explanation of the corresponding observations in natural genomes.

The models less dependent of the source of duplications but incorporating additional mechanisms for generating heavy algebraic tails in length distributions of exact matches were represented in [2, 3]. Unlike [1] two basic mechanisms utilized in the models, duplication as in [1] and point mutation, reflect those in natural chromosomes. It was demonstrated that the length distributions[4] of repetitive sequences simulated by the models correspond to those observed in natural chromosomes and that the form of those distributions also was close to algebraic with exponents of typically around -3 . Thus the models in question were able to reproduce these exponents and even the amplitudes of the distributions were fitted[3] but unlike [1], the structure of the duplication source did not influence the exponent -3 of length distributions in certain parameter regime.

The important feature of the models [1–3] was the definition of pairs of exact repeats. In [1, 3] the authors used *supermaximal repeats* as the basic type of exact match. Supermaximal repeats are described in [12]; they represent a subset of exact matches with additional conditions of maximality at the ends. On the other hand, the work [2] relies on the definition of exact repeats as they are computed by `mummer` but also applies additional post-processing, imitating, to our view, the definition of supermaximal repeats [2]. Nevertheless, the distinctive feature observed for the length distributions in [2] was the algebraic behavior of the tails for a broad range of parameters, while [3] demonstrated that when mutations occurred as often as duplications (simplistically speaking), the algebraic behavior disappeared; this point is discussed in more detail in [3]. Thus, this observation indicated that the definition of exact repeats influence the output length distributions.

Thus, the duplication-mutation model in fact is determined by two components: a) evolutionary mechanisms applied to the synthetic chromosome, in our case, dupli-

*Electronic address: maxim.koroteev@ucc.ie

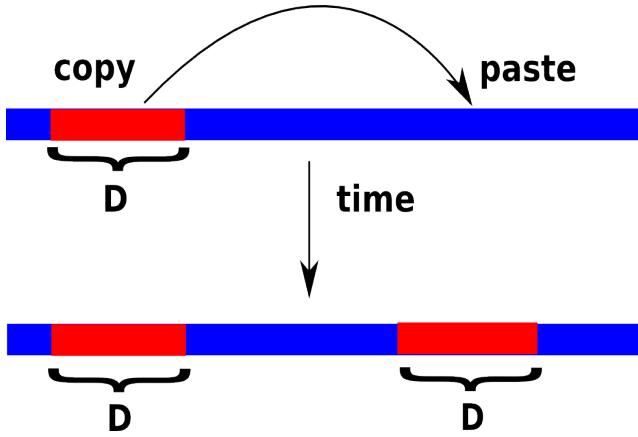


FIG. 1: The figure represents random duplications as they appear in the synthetic sequence. A random sequence of the fixed length D (red bar) is chosen from the chromosome (blue bar) and copied into another randomly chosen place of the chromosome thus producing a pair of exact matches. Simultaneously point substitutions are applied to the whole chromosome with some rate. Length distributions of such pairs (with restrictions layed by `mummer`) is computed and analyzed throughout the paper.

cations and point substitutions and b) the definition of how to compute the length distributions, i.e., de facto, how we count exact matches.

In this paper we 1) rely on `mummer` in our computation of the exact repeats following [2] but *do not apply additional postprocessing* to portrey supermaximal repeats, thus, our counting is different both from [3] and [2]; 2) suggest dynamic equations reproducing both the exponent and the amplitude of the length distribution for that counting; 3) demonstrate that the stationary equation that we derived, reproducing the amplitude and the exponent for length distributions of pairs of exact repeats can be represented as a (infinite) sum or a chain of equations for different types of exact repeats; 4) demonstrate that the equation for supermaximal repeats from [3] is incorporated in the chain of equations we introduce for various types of exact matches.

MODEL

The evolutionary mechanisms used in numerical simulations of the model correspond to [1, 3]: a detailed explanation of these duplication-mutation models can be found, e.g., in [3] but we summarize them in this section.

The layout of the model is shown in fig. 1. We consider a synthetic chromosome (blue bar in fig. 1) represented as a string of L bases chosen from a finite alphabet; in natural genomes the alphabet consists of four bases A, G, C, and T. The distance between bases is a length scale denoted by a ; for natural genomes it is close to 1\AA .

Within our models a subsequence of length D (red bar

in fig. 1) is chosen randomly within the chromosome and is substituted for a sequence of length D at another randomly chosen position in the chromosome (fig. 1). These duplications are assumed to occur with the rate λ measured per time unit, per base. Simultaneously point substitutions are applied to the system with the rate μ per time unit, per base.

The sequence feature that we study is the set of repeated sequences within the chromosome. For finding all pairs of exact matches in the synthetic sequence we apply `mummer`. `Mummer` searches for maximal repeats or *maxmers*[11] which are akin to supermaxmers[15] mentioned in the previos section and used in [3] in the sense that computation of both sets is based on some maximality condition. However, the set of exact matches computed by `mummer` is larger than the set of supermaxmers of the same length as the definition of the latter includes additional restrictions. Then the observations show that the output of these computations is noticeably different if we compare the length distributions obtained in the models [2] and [3]. Our aim here is the model capable to reproduce the simulated length distributions obtained with `mummer` without any additional restriction as well as an equation for the simulated length distributions. In the discussion below it is always implied that `mummer` is used with the option *-maxmatch* which according to the `mummer` manual produces computations of exact matches ‘regardless of their uniqueness’[16]. The Appendix section also contains more rigorous definitions of various types of repeats. However for the purposes of the analytic derivation suggested below it is sufficient to think that the equations aim to reproduce the length distributions constructed for the set of repeats obtained by `mummer`, a standard tool in comparative analysis of long DNA.

ANALYTIC TREATMENT

Let the number of pairs of duplicates of the length m at time moment t is $g_2(t, m)$. We assume that new duplication events occur with the rate λ per base, per time unit; at the same time the chromosome undergoes point mutation events occurring with the rate μ per base, per time unit. We first write down the evolutionary (balance) equation for the average number of *pairs of duplicates* g_2 , which was derived in [3]; it has the form

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\Delta g_2}{\Delta t} = & -2 \left[(m + D - a) \frac{a\lambda}{D} + \mu m \right] g_2(t, m) + \\ & + 4 \left(\frac{a^2\lambda}{D} + a\mu \right) \sum_{k=m+1}^D g_2(t, k) + L \frac{a\lambda}{D} \delta_c(D - m). \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

The main difference between this equation and the equation of [3] is notation (we use g_2 here instead of f). In

addition, there is no prefactor 2 in the last term of the equation because in [3] we studied the number of duplicated *sequences* while here we look at the number of *pairs of duplicates*; thus, the source produces one pair of duplicates at each time step. We also confine ourselves to the equation for the monoscale source using Kronecker delta function $\delta_c(D - m)$; different source terms are also possible and will be presented elsewhere. Thus the equation (1) is provided for the reference and connection to the subsequent discussion.

We will then focus on the stationary version of the equation implying that when $t \rightarrow \infty$ $g_2(t, m) \rightarrow g_2(m)$ (this can be demonstrated by analytic calculation)

$$0 = -2 \left[(m + D - a) \frac{a\lambda}{D} + \mu m \right] g_2(m) +$$

$$+ 4 \left(\frac{a^2\lambda}{D} + a\mu \right) \sum_{k=m+1}^D g_2(k) + L \frac{a\lambda}{D} \delta_c(D - m). \quad (2)$$

Now in the same way as we looked at *pairs of identical duplicates* we can look at triplets, quadruplets, etc. of identical sequences and write down the corresponding equations for them. For i -plets we will have the following stationary equation

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= -i \left[(m + D - a) \frac{a\lambda}{D} + \mu m \right] g_i(m) + 2i \left(\frac{a^2\lambda}{D} + a\mu \right) \sum_{k=m+1}^D g_i(k) \\ &+ (i-1) \left(\frac{a\lambda}{D} (D - m + a) \right) g_{i-1}(m) + 2(i-1) \frac{a^2\lambda}{D} \sum_{k=m+1}^D g_{i-1}(k), \quad i > 2 \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

We see that unlike the equation for duplicates containing the source term with the delta function in it, other equations also have sources of new i -plets ; these sources are $i-1$ -plets and expressed by the last two terms in (3). One produces i -plets of $i-1$ -plets of the same length m (the first term in the second line of (3)); the other generates i -plets of longer $i-1$ -plets by copying and pasting their parts of the length m (the second term in the second line of (3)), i.e., new duplicates, $g_2(m)$ generated by the source, in turn produce triplets $g_3(\tilde{m})$, where $\tilde{m} \leq m$, triplets produce quadrupletes g_4 etc. The first term in the first line of (3) is responsible for the destruction of sequences by new duplications and point mutations; coefficients represent the corresponding rates. The second term in the first line of (3) shows that longer sequences are turned into shorter ones, again, by duplications and point mutations. The general mechanism has much in common with models studied in fragmentation theory[17]. This similarity is also discussed below.

Thus for each $m = 1 \dots D$ we have a set of equations for various sets of identical repeats (maxmers). As it was demonstrated in [3] the equation for g_2 fits well to the length distribution of supermaxmers computed for the synthetic chromosome after applying evolutionary duplication-mutation dynamics described above. Equations for different types of repeats, to our knowledge, were not obtained earlier. We refer to this set of equa-

tions as *chain* because as it is easily seen functions g_i represented in the i -equation are related to the “adjacent” functions g_{i-1} and g_{i+1} .

Using these equations we can obtain the equation corresponding to the length distributions of exact matches computed by **nummer** as follows. We sum up all the equations for g_i , $i = 1, 2, \dots$ and find a new equation for the function $G(m) = \sum i g_i(m)$; the equation has the form

$$\begin{aligned} &-(\zeta + 2)mG(m) + 2aG(m) + 2(\zeta + 2)a \sum_{n>m} G(n) + \\ &+ L\delta_c(D - m) = 0, \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where $\zeta = D\mu/a\lambda$ is a dimensionless parameter.

Now we can compare the results of the simulations with the solutions of (4); the comparison is represented in fig. 2. Additional comparisons for different sets of parameters are given in supplemental figures (see Supplemental materials). Let us now compare solutions of the equation presented in [2] with the simulations of the same duplication-mutation dynamics. For that we used equation (5) of supplemental materials of [2]. Comparisons are represented in fig. 3. The solutions of [2] provide a good agreement for sufficiently large mutation rates compared to the duplication rate λ but fail to reproduce the amplitude of the length distributions for different regimes. In this regime saturation is observed wrt.

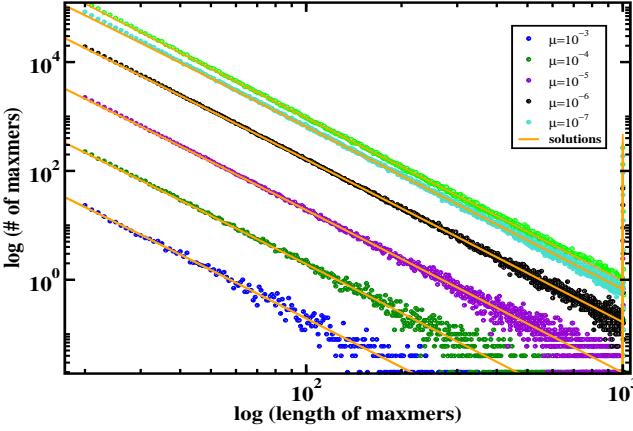


FIG. 2: Curves represent stationary length distributions obtained from simulations of duplication-mutation dynamics described in the previous section with a monoscale source for various base substitution rates μ and corresponding analytic solutions (orange) of (4). The chromosome length $L = 10^6$; source length $D = 10^3$, duplication rate $\lambda = 10^{-4}$; for simulations we always take $a = 1$. Length distributions for the same dynamics computed by mummer[14] were obtained using the following options *-maxmatch -n -b -l 20*. The results were then averaged over 10^2 realizations.

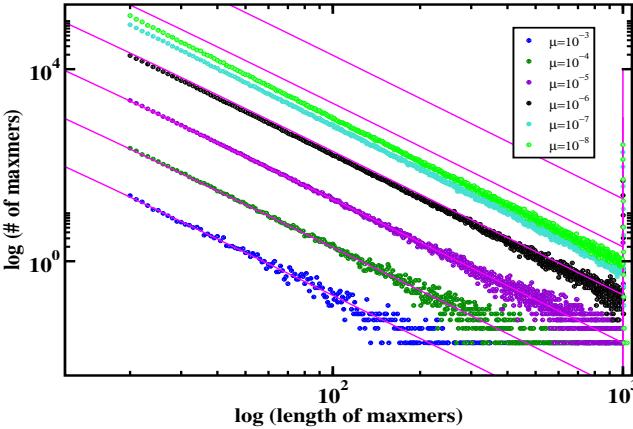


FIG. 3: Curves represent stationary length distributions obtained from simulations of duplication-mutation dynamics with a monoscale source for various base substitution rates μ and corresponding analytic solutions (magenta curves) of eq. (5) of [2]. All parameters for the simulations and the equation are the same as for fig. 2. The results of simulations were averaged over 10^2 realizations.

the amplitude of the length distributions which is reproduced by solutions (4) as seen in fig. 2 and supplemental figures 1 and 2[18].

One then can easily understand the qualitative correspondence of length distributions observed in [2] and [3] for high mutation rates: the growth of mutation rate μ evidently affects $g_i(m)$ for larger i as the growth of i means *more sequences* in the set which are destroyed faster affected by mutations. Thus the main contribu-

tion to $G(m)$ for high mutation rates comes from $g_2(m)$, i.e., $G(m) \sim g_2(m)$ as $\zeta \rightarrow \infty$ and the dynamics is described by (2) in the main order. Also it is instructive to note that the situation $\mu \gg \lambda$ generally implies $\zeta \gg 1$ and one can neglect in (4) all terms compared to those containing ζ and the source term with delta function to keep the algebraic tail, hence L/a has to grow as $\sim \zeta$ to keep the same order of the source term $\delta_c(D - m)$, otherwise the tail disappears as it is seen from fig. 2 for large μ : here ζ is growing but the length L remains fixed. However this is not applicable even for $\zeta \sim 1$. On the other hand, if $\mu \ll \lambda$ then $\zeta \rightarrow 0$ and we can write down the equation corresponding to the limit of absent mutations as ζ becomes negligible compared to 1.

$$-2mG(m) + 2aG(m) + 4a \sum_{n>m} G(n) + L\delta_c(D - m) = 0. \quad (5)$$

If D is fixed as in figs. 2, 3, then the limit amplitude of the algebraic tail is controlled by the only parameter L and all distributions with decreasing ζ asymptotically have the saturation line; this line establishes an upper boundary for fitting the model to the natural sequence. This also can be seen from the exact solution of (5) that has the form

$$G(m) = \begin{cases} \frac{aDL}{(m-a)m(m+a)}, & m < D \\ \frac{L}{2(D-a)}, & m = D \end{cases}$$

with obvious main order term $\sim 1/m^3$ as $a \ll m$. The solution is applicable if $a \ll D \ll L$; otherwise finite size effects turn out to be strong.

The existence of saturation also can be viewed from the continuum limit of the dynamics under consideration. Introducing dimensionless variables

$$\bar{a} = \frac{a}{D}, \bar{m} = \frac{m}{D}, \bar{L} = \frac{L}{D},$$

so that D corresponds to 1, we see that the dimensionless size of the lattice $\bar{a} \ll 1$ and hence $\bar{a} \rightarrow 0$. We then denote $\bar{m} = x$ and taking into account that $L/D \gg 1$, we also take $\bar{L} \rightarrow \infty$; other parameters may vary. Then $\bar{L}\delta_c(1-x)$ turns into Dirac delta and the equation (4) takes the form

$$-(\zeta + 2)xG(x) + 2(\zeta + 2) \int_x^\infty G(y)dy + \delta(1-x) = 0.$$

This equation corresponds to the stationary form of eq. (1) in [17]. Its solution is

$$G(x) = \frac{1}{\zeta + 2} \left[\frac{\delta(1-x)}{x} + \frac{2}{x^3} \right]. \quad (6)$$

The function has the exponent -3 for all $x \in (0, 1)$. It is seen that the amplitude of the distribution $G(x)$ is

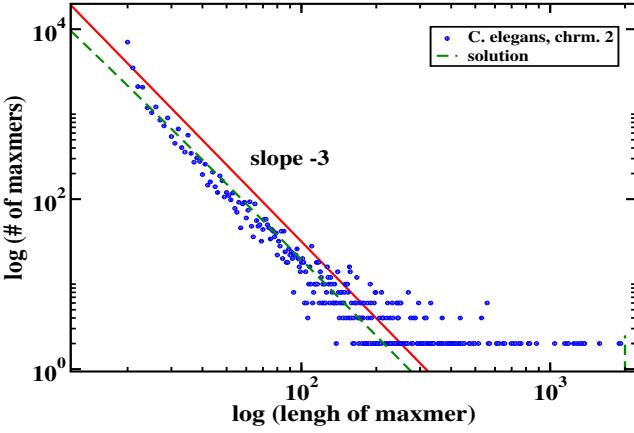


FIG. 4: The length distribution for repeat-masked *C. elegans* chromosome 2 was computed using *mummer* with the options `-maxmatch -n -b -l 20`; self-hits were removed from the distribution. The length of the chromosome is $\sim 10^7$. The dotted curve represents the solution of eq. (4) for the parameters computed for the natural chromosome $D = 2000$, $\mu = 2 \times 10^{-2}$, and $\lambda = 2 \times 10^{-2}$.

controlled by the parameter $1/(\zeta + 2)$, while the slope remains the same, but in new variables ζ has the form $\mu/\lambda\bar{a}$ and as in the continuum limit $\bar{a} \rightarrow 0$ the tail -3 vanishes unless at least $\mu/\lambda \sim \bar{a}$. For small ζ the dependence of the amplitude on the parameters μ and λ disappears which corresponds to the observed saturation.

COMPARISON TO NATURAL DATA

For the comparison of our results with natural data we take *C. elegans* chromosome 2, for which we show the length distribution of exact matches on fig. 4. As all synthetic sequences when processed with *mummer* do not contain “self-hits”, i.e., identical sequences located exactly in the same positions for both copies of the chromosome, the self-hits were also removed from the *mummer* output for the natural sequence. To estimate the parameters of our model for this chromosome we use the estimate for the duplication rate 0.0208 per gene, per 1*my*(million years) or ≈ 400 duplications occur in genes per 1*my*[19], as the number of genes in the *C. elegans* genome is estimated to be around 2×10^4 [20], or $\beta_0 = 40$ per 1*my* for chromosome 2 of length $\sim 10^7$ bases (as the length of the whole genome is taken to be $\sim 10^8$ bases); for the rate per base λ_0 we have β_0/L_0 , where L_0 are bases in the *C. elegans* chromosome 2 belonging to genes. It is known that genes cover around 50% of the whole genome in *C. elegans*, hence $L_0 \approx 5 \times 10^6$. We assume that the duplication rate for non-coding parts of the chromosome $\lambda = \lambda_0 \sim 10^{-5}$ per base, per 1*my*. Then we find that $\lambda L = 100$ duplications occur in coding and non-coding parts of *C. elegans* chromosome 2 per 1*my*.

For the mutation rate in *C. elegans* we accept the esti-

mate $\approx 2 \times 10^{-2}$ per base, per 1*my*[21]; one generation = four days. To map the parameters of the natural chromosome to the model we use the estimate for the algebraic tail of the length distribution $2D^2\lambda/(\mu m^3)$. This estimate follows from the prefactor in (6) if we take into account that $x \approx \bar{m} = m/D$ and $a = 1$. The amplitude of the distribution for any specific m is estimated directly from the plot. In addition, it is necessary to take into account that $\lambda = \lambda_{model}$ from (6) is related to the duplication rate in the natural chromosome $\lambda_{nat} = 10^{-5}$ as $\lambda_{model} = D\lambda_{nat}/a$. From all previous estimates we obtain $D \approx 2000$ and $\lambda_{model} = 2 \times 10^{-2}$. These estimates yield the solution of eq. (4) shown in fig. 4. The exact matches of the length > 200 observed in the fig. 4 imply that the realistic source of duplications should have non-zero variance unlike the delta source studied here. However, as it was shown in [1], such source does not influence the form of the tail for length distribution.

DISCUSSION

The solutions of the duplication-mutation dynamics presented in the paper raise a number of questions. For the explanation of heavy algebraic tails observed in length distributions of natural sequences we used the solutions of the equations for $t \rightarrow \infty$. In connection with biology it should not be understood as an effort to say that natural sequences are in fact in a stationary state. First, the models studied here include only two processes having some analogies with processes in natural DNA. Therefore it would not be correct to interpret them as the models of how natural sequences have been varying in their history *de facto*. For example, in [1] we demonstrated that long range correlations detected in natural DNA were not found in the synthetic sequences obtained by means of these models; i.e., the length distributions merely reflect some important evolutionary features of natural DNA neglecting other features. Second, it is necessary to stress that basic assumptions of the model imply uniform mutation and duplication rates both in time and in space while in natural genomes these quantities may vary depending, e.g., on the function of a DNA region. Nevertheless the correspondence of the solutions to the model and natural data demonstrates that the equations detect essential details of the data. On the other hand, it is hardly possible to indicate a characteristic time scale for all eukaryotic sequences on which significant evolutionary changes occurred to form the modern genomes. Therefore, as the time for natural sequences is restricted by the present moment, we do not have sufficient evidence to map this time moment to a specific time moment of the model and the most plausible assumption is to map it to the stationary state of the model attained for $t \rightarrow \infty$ (in the units of the model). This assumption is confirmed by observations that stationary length

distributions of the model reproduce the length distributions of natural sequences. However, this should be rather understood as a sojourn of a non-stationary solution in the neighbourhood of the stationary one sufficiently long time compared to a characteristic time scale in the system rather than a “fixation” of natural genomes in stationary states and thus the stationary system approximates well the natural DNA while the latter still may remain non-stationary. Obviously, if a natural chromosome demonstrates noticeable deviations from algebraic tail or other deviations from stationary solution, the assumption of non-stationarity becomes possible and has to be studied separately.

The equations (4) have several features deserving to be stressed. First of all, the equations we derived for $G(m)$ allow the length distributions of exact matches computed by `mummer` in a broad range of parameters to be reproduced correctly. That means, in part, that histograms computed by counting pairs of maximal exact matches with `mummer` can be understood as $\sum ig_i(m)$ i.e., they represent a cumulative sum of all sequences of duplicates, triplicates, etc. It is worth noting that the `mummer` output does not compute functions $g_i(m)$ directly and thus the question of interpretation of g_i in terms of biologically meaningful sequences remains open: we observe only some cumulative effect of distributions for $g_i(m)$. On the other hand, the correspondence of functions $g_2(m)$ to the length distribution of *supermaxmers* indicates a potential way to resolve this issue: if functions $g_2(m)$ were interpreted as supermaxmers then the candidates for $g_3(m)$, $g_4(m)$ etc. could be so called ‘local maxmers’[12, 22]. At the same time the observed correspondence of `mummer` output and the function $G(m)$ suggests we have an analytic interpretation for the length distributions computed by `mummer` for natural sequences: the length distributions for natural sequences exhibiting algebraic behaviour with the exponent -3 can be understood in terms of equations (3) and (4) and their solutions.

The representation $G(m) = \sum_i ig_i(m)$ also indicates that the function $G(m)$ for each m can be thought of as average number of sequences \bar{i} if $g_i(m)$ implies a non-normalized distribution function of the number of sequences per one exact match over i . The equation (4) has the form of a fragmentation equation with an input and thus can be construed as stationary fragmentation equation of these average quantities $G(m)$.

We also proposed a hierarchy of equations for g_i ; the first of these equations, i.e, for g_2 , was derived in [3] and we see that the equations of [2] and [3] as well as those presented here treat different subjects focusing on various restrictions imposed on exact matches; in part, the work in [3] deals with the collection of ‘supermaxmers’, specific pairs of exact repeats computed with additional conditions of maximality which are discussed in[12](see Appendix 1); they are important as the equations for

them not only account for the observed algebraic behaviour in length distributions of natural DNA sequences but demonstrate, in part, non-algebraic length distributions also observed both in simulations and natural DNA and also because their definition provides them with a natural biological interpretation[12]. They are accounted for by equation (2) and demonstrate obvious discrepancy from the length distribution of exact matches (suppl. fig. 3). Our equation (4) treats all pairs of exact matches neglecting their uniqueness and reproduces their length distributions. Then $G(m)$ in our interpretation may be represented as a sum of ‘supermaxmers’ for which the biological interpretation was already discussed and other sets of sequences obtained by natural extension of the concept of supermaxmers; in this sense, we expect that such an interpretation of $g_i(m)$, $m > 2$ will appear soon.

The author is acknowledged to Kun Gao for helpful discussion.

APPENDIX 1. TO THE DEFINITION OF EXCAT MATCHES

In the appendix we provide more rigorous definitions of maximal repeats or matches which were used in the paper but which allow to distinguish the results presented here from those obtained earlier. There may be several approaches to the definition of exact matches and supermaximal repeats (cf. [12]); our approach construes the sequence as a *set* and thus all definitions are given in terms of sets and subsets.

§1. Consider a finite sequence of objects x_i , $i = 1, 2 \dots L$, $L < \infty$. For each element of the sequence there is a pair $\{i, x_i\}$, where i is the number of an element in the sequence¹; hence, we have a *set* of pairs $\{i, x_i\}_{i=1}^L$. We denote this set by X . By X_k we denote a subset of X consisting of k pairs $\{i, x_i\}$ corresponding to k consecutive elements of the sequence. In the case of DNA sequences the sequence of the length L corresponds to the whole chromosome, or whole genome or even any long DNA sequence.

§2. The configuration space is defined by possible values of x_i . In general situation we can assume that this space S is the same for all sites of the sequence and $S = \{0, 1, 2, \dots, N - 1\}$. Thus, we have N^L possible states of the system. Consider also the set Y of all arbitrary N -ary sequences containing $1 \leq l \leq L$ elements. This is a finite set with the cardinal number $|Y| = \sum_{k=1}^L N^k = N(N^L - 1)/(N - 1)$. Elements of this set will be denoted by y_k where index k implies the

¹ we use this redundant notation only for clarity. It is clear that notation $\{x_i\}$ is enough to denote the *set* of pairs, thus below y_k may again denote the *set* of k pairs $\{k, y_k\}$

number of elements the corresponding sequence. The elements of y_k are denoted $y_k = (y_k^1, y_k^2, \dots, y_k^k)$. For DNA sequences the configuration space has the form $S = \{A, C, G, T\}$.

Example. Let the configuration space be binary, i.e., $S = \{0, 1\}$. Consider the sequence $\mathfrak{X} = \{10101010\}$ for which $L = 8$. The set X is represented as follows

$$X = \{\{1, 1\}, \{2, 0\}, \{3, 1\}, \{4, 0\}, \{5, 1\}, \{6, 0\}, \{7, 1\}, \{8, 0\}\}.$$

For this set one of the X_3 s is given by $\{\{2, 0\}, \{3, 1\}, \{4, 0\}\}$. The set Y consists of all binary sequences containing l elements, $1 \leq l \leq 8$. An example of an arbitrary y_4 is furnished by an arbitrary binary sequence of 4 elements.

§3. We say that the element $y_k \in Y$ intersects with the sequence X if $\exists a : 1 \leq a \leq L - k$ such that $y_k^j = x_{a+j-1}$, $j = 1, 2, \dots, k$. In our example the element $y_4 = \{1010\}$ intersects with X three times. The subsets of X corresponding to these intersections are given by $X_4^1 = \{\{1, 1\}, \{2, 0\}, \{3, 1\}, \{4, 0\}\}$, $X_4^2 = \{\{3, 1\}, \{4, 0\}, \{5, 1\}, \{6, 0\}\}$, $X_4^3 = \{\{5, 1\}, \{6, 0\}, \{7, 1\}, \{8, 0\}\}$.

Let the element $y_k \in Y$ intersected with X and the intersection is given by the set $\{X_k^1, X_k^2, \dots, X_k^r\}$. We denote that by $y_k = \{X_k^1, X_k^2, \dots, X_k^r\}$ where $X_k^j \subset X, \forall j$.

Definition 1. The element $y_k = \{X_k^1, X_k^2, \dots, X_k^h\} \in Y$ is referred to as *sub-maximal k-mer* if $h > 1$.

Definition 1'. Each pair of sets (X_k^i, X_k^j) , $i \neq j$ of y_k is referred to as *exact match*.

Definition 2. Exact match (X_k^i, X_k^j) , $i \neq j$ is referred to as *maximal exact match* if at least one of $X_k^i, X_k^j \notin X_{k+p}^s \forall p \geq 1$ and $\forall s$ such that $X_{k+p}^s \in y_{k+p} = \{X_{k+p}^1, \dots, X_{k+p}^b\}$ where y_{k+p} is a sub-maximal $k+p$ -mer.

Example.

Consider the sequence

TGGTGGTTAATTCACAGGTTACAGGTTAGGG

Its subsequence *GGTTA* is a sub-maximal 5-mer with $h = 3$. Each pair of three sequences of it forms an exact match. On the other hand, a maximal exact match is formed by any pair except that, containing the sequences 2 and 3 as both these sequences turn out to be immersed into longer sub-maximal maxmer *ACAGGTTA*. This can be expressed in other words by saying that maximal exact matches can not be extended even by one symbols to the left or to the right to remain in the same time exact matches.

§4. For further purposes we should notice that a sub-maximal k -mer can be contained into another submaximal $k+p$ -mer, $p > 0$ in the sense that it may occur that $\forall X_k^i$ there exists X_{k+p}^j : $X_k^i \subset X_{k+p}^j$. This observation motivates the following definition.

Definition 3. The sub-maximal k -mer $y_k = \{X_k^1, X_k^2, \dots, X_k^h\} \in Y$ is referred to as *local maximal k-mer* if for any sub-maximal maxmer $y_{k+p} =$

$\{X_{k+p}^1, \dots, X_{k+p}^b\}$, where $p \geq 1$ $\exists X_k^i \in y_k$ such that $X_k^i \subset X_{k+p}^j \in y_{k+p}$, $j = 1 \dots b$.

Definition 4. A local maximal k -mer is referred to as a *super maximal k-mer* if the conditions of definition 3 are valid for all $X_k^i \in y_k$.

In the example above the subsequence *ACAGGTTA* represents a supermaximal 7-mer, while three sequences *GGTTA* yield a local maxmer, as only the first such sequence can not be extended while two other sequences can be extended to supermaximal maxmer *ACAGGTTA*.

It is seen that relations of maximal exact matches and supermaximal and local maximal maxmers are not straightforward. One may roughly say that the set of all supermaximal repeats would be a subset of all maximal exact matches. However insignificant deviations from this inclusion can appear because we define maximal exact matches as *pairs* of elements while supermaxmers even for DNA sequences can consist of three sequences; but such supermaxmers are so rare that their influence is negligible and in a zeroth approximation we can rely on the relation indicated above. The connections to local maxmers are more subtle: from the example above it is clear that maximal exact matches are often “chosen” as pairs from local maxmers containing many sequences. Though it is correct that supermaximal and local maxmers suggest more non-trivial division of repeats in the chromosome, maximal exact matches as we defined them above provide an independent measure of non-local correlations in DNA.

APPENDIX 2. TO THE DEFINITION OF LENGTH DISTRIBUTION.

§5. Based on the previous definitions of various repeats we provide more rigorous treatment of the length distribution.

Definition 5. The number of X_k^j containing in sub-maximal k -mer is referred to as *index* of the sub-maximal k -mer with respect to the set X and is denoted by $\text{In}_X(y_k)$.

Thus $\text{In}_X(y_k) = h$ (cf. definition 1). This obviously would correspond to introducing some indicator function on the set Y ². According to the definition 1, $\min_{y \in Y} \text{In}_X(y_k) = 2$. In addition, the function $\text{In}_X(y_k)$ is non-negative and finite-valued. If the element y_k is not a sub-maximal k -mer, then we put $\text{In}_X(y_k) = 0$. The in-

² There may exist sensible definitions of index different from definition 5, from which we mention the following: if y_k is a submaximal k -mer from def. 1 with $h > 1$, then $\text{In}_X(y_k) = 1$ for any h . One may say that in definition 5 the index counts ‘occurrences’ of a sequence y_k in X , while in the last definition the number of sub-maximal k -mers is counted; this terminology is developed in [13]

dex is defined similarly for all types of repeats introduced in §§3,4.

§6. Let us introduce an equivalence relation on Y . Two elements of Y are equivalent if they are both sub-maximal k -mers wrt. X . Thus, the set Y is partitioned into classes of equivalent elements. The set obtained by means of factorization of Y with respect to this equivalence relation is denoted by Y_F^X . Thus, each element $y_k^F \in Y_F^X$ consists of all sequences $y \in Y$ of k elements intersecting to X and included to some (sub)maximal k -mer.

The notion of index is easily redefined for arbitrary equivalence classes (not only for sub-maximal k -mer but for maximal exact matches or supermaxmers). These definitions are straightforward and we omit them.

Definition 5'. If $y_k^{(1)}, y_k^{(2)}, \dots, y_k^{(p)} \in Y$ are equivalent with respect to the equivalence relation F , then the index of the corresponding element $y_k^F \in Y_F^X$ is given by

$$\text{In}(y_k^F) = \sum_{i=1}^p \text{In}_X(y_k^{(i)}). \quad (7)$$

§7. Example. We can consider the notion of index in application specifically to supermaxmers. In this case the configuration space is $S = \{A, T, C, G\}$ and supermaximal maxmers can contain 2, 3 or 4 sequences³. Thus, according to definition 5 the corresponding indexes are equal to 2, 3 and 4. The space Y_F^X is obtained by establishing the equivalence of all supermaxmers, which have the same number of elements.

The complete number of elements containing in $y_k^F \in Y_F^X$ is given by (7). As each $y \in Y$ belongs to at least one y_k^F , then Y is partitioned into equivalence classes with respect to supermaximal sequences. Consequently $\text{In}(y_k^F)$ can be computed for any y_k^F . Then we can introduce the following definition.

Definition 6. The function $n(k) = \text{In}(y_k^F)$, $y_k^F \in Y_F^X$, $k = 1, 2, \dots$ is referred to as *empirical length distribution* on Y wrt. X .

§8. It is important to notice that the equivalence relation is constructed for studying some correlation properties of m-ary sequences, e.g., genomes, which do not depend on a concrete structure or content of these sequences but which would incorporate physical length as one of the governing parameters. In this context it should be understood that there are many other ways to construct an equivalence relation or, in physical terms, *coarse graining* on Y . However, these definitions typically neglect the physical length. The simplest way is to include only supermaximal k -mers and neglect local ones. To give a

less obvious and exotic example we may say that two elements of Y are equivalent if, provided that configuration space is $S = \{0, 1\}$, they contain equal fractions of 1s. This is especially easy to envisage for binary sequences but also may be reasonable for arbitrary m-ary sequences. In part, the similar construction was applied in [23] to produce so called k spectra of genomes. As genetic 'alphabet' consists of 4 letters the authors consider k -mers with respect to the fraction of (A+T) content. In our terms that means introducing a different equivalence relation on the set Y than one mentioned above. On the other hand, we may consider the trivial equivalence relation when any $y \in Y$ is equivalent only to itself. This situation is ubiquitously exploited, e.g., in genomics where one can take a specific "functional" sequence and ask whether its copies are found in different genomes. In this situation the content of the sequence is not eliminated because the assumed functionality implies that any nucleotide may be important. The interesting example of manipulations with this limiting case of self-equivelency is given in [23].

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³ in binary case, only two sequences. The number of supermaxmers with 3 or 4 sequences is negligible compared to those with two sequences.

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Supplemental Materials: On a chain of fragmentation equations for duplication-mutation dynamics in DNA sequences

SUPPLEMENTAL FIGURES

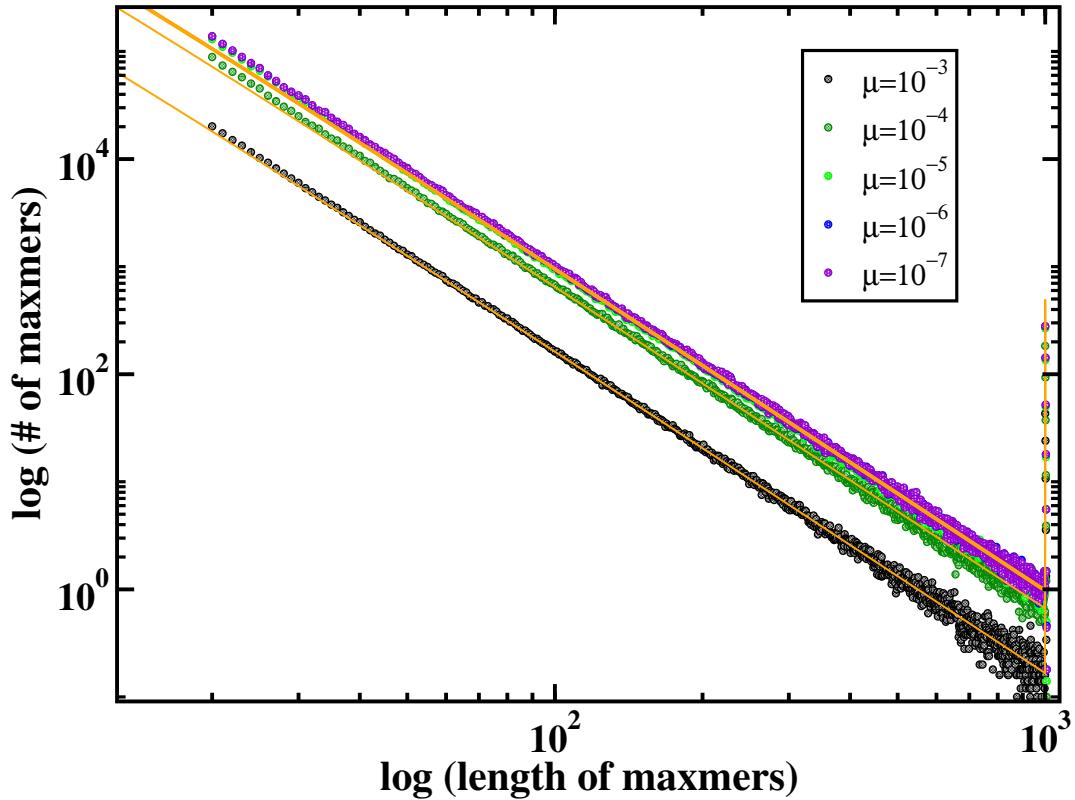


FIG. S1: Comparisons of simulations with solutions of equation (4) of the main text. The parameters are: $L = 10^6$, $D = 10^3$, $\lambda = 10^{-1}$. Empirical length distributions were computed with the same switches of *mummer* as indicated in the caption for figure 1 of the main text. The distributions were averaged over 100 realizations.

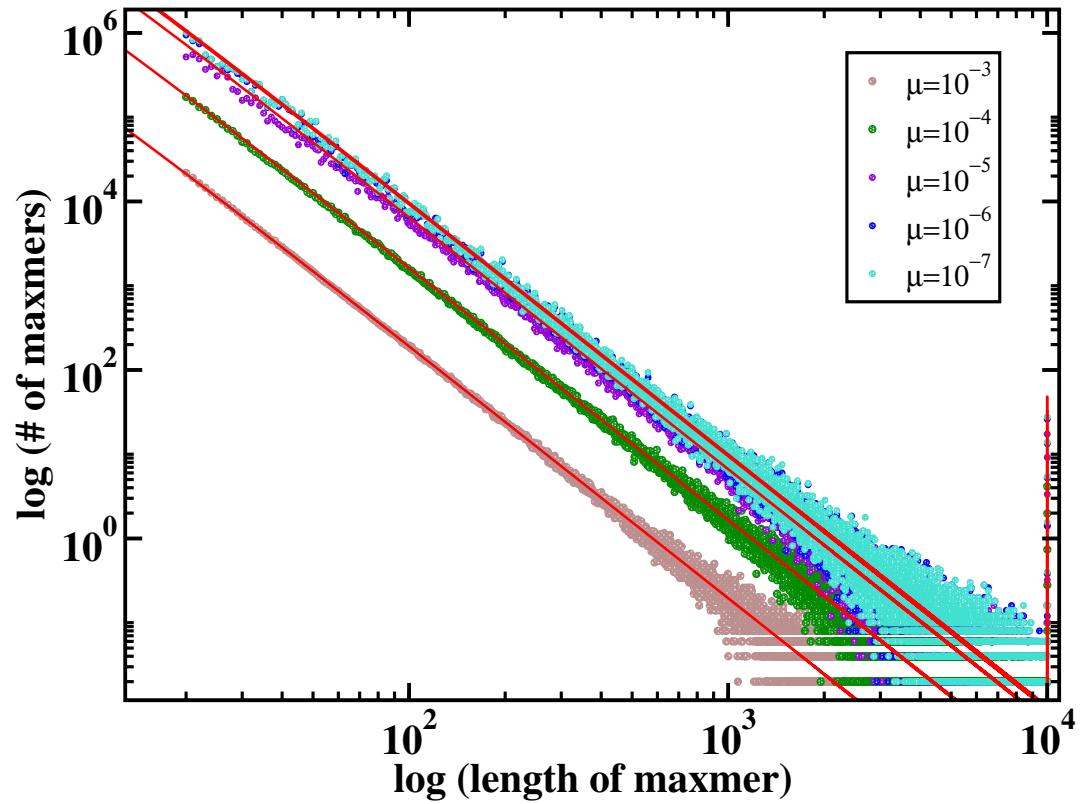


FIG. S2: Parameters of the model are: $L = 10^6$, $D = 10^4$, $\lambda = 10^{-1}$. All other parameters and options are the same as in figure 1 of the main text and supplemental figure 1.

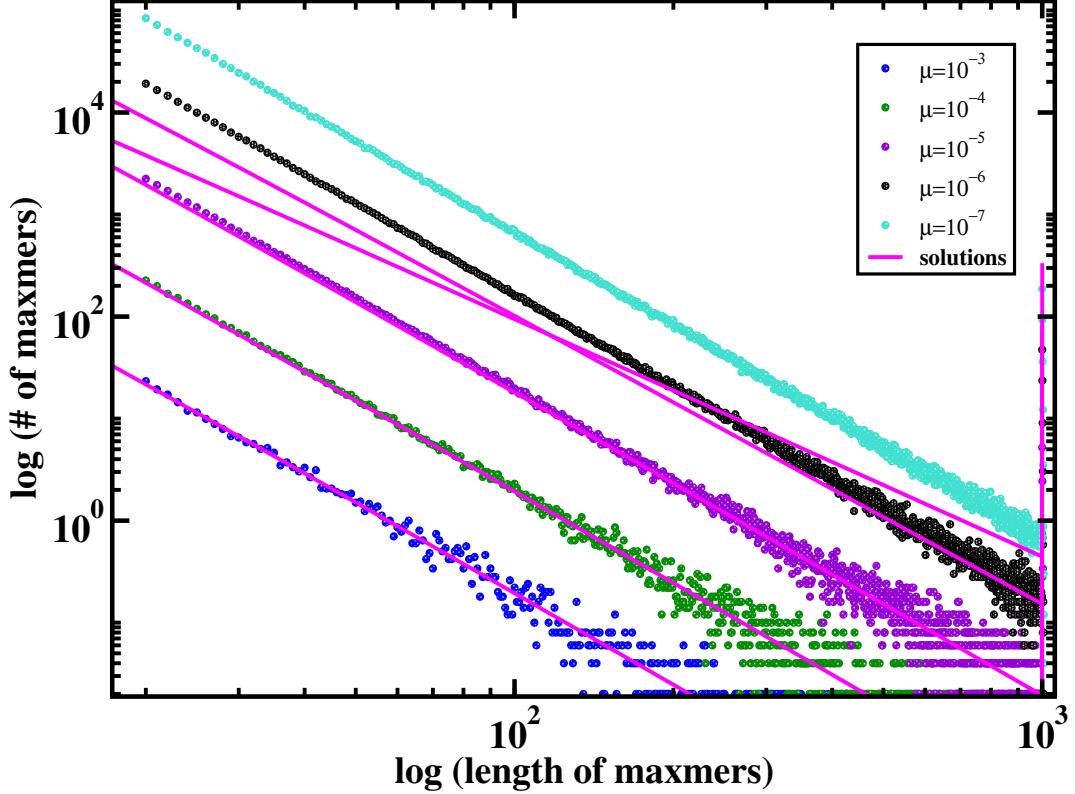


FIG. S3: Length distributions obtained with duplication-mutation dynamics using *mummer* with the parameters `-n -b -l 20`. Parameters of the model are: $L = 10^6$, $D = 10^3$, $\lambda = 10^{-4}$ and correspond to those indicated in the fig. 1 of the main text. Magenta curves represent the solutions of the equation (2) of the main text.